

# PERSONAL PASCAL

Compiled PASCAL for the  
IBM Personal Computer<sup>®</sup>

DAVID E. CORTESI

GEORGE W. CHERRY

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# Preface

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This book is a text on the use of Pascal in general, and compiled Pascal on the IBM Personal Computer in particular. Its aim is to teach effective use of Pascal as a compiled programming language, when that use will take place in an environment composed of an IBM Personal Computer, using either the IBM Pascal compiler or the Digital Research Pascal/MT + 86 compiler.

Beginning programmers encounter several kinds of difficulties:

- Getting started
- Finishing
- Avoiding syntactical errors

A helpful textbook assists its reader in these areas. This book helps the reader to get started by demonstrating the top-down strategy of design. It helps the reader complete a design by illustrating stepwise refinement. And it helps the reader avoid common syntactic errors by giving careful descriptions and illustrations of Pascal syntax. Clarity of design and portability of code are emphasized throughout.

The first two chapters introduce the novice programmer to simple program statements and to simple, complete programs. The third chapter explains in detail how the compilers are used to translate programs. From that point forward, the reader should be able to compile and run each example program in the text. The reader who already knows another programming language and wants to pick up Pascal can skip chapter 1 entirely and skim chapter 2. Those who know their Personal Computer's operating system well will not have to linger in chapter 3.

Chapters 4–13 cover the *entire* (standard) Pascal language, including textfiles (chapter 5), records (chapter 10), pointers and dynamic variables (chapter 11), files (chapter 12), and sets (chapter 13). The central themes in these chapters are, first, to provide a careful, thorough explication of

the syntax of Pascal and, second, to demonstrate the use of the language through many example programs and program fragments. The language's syntax is also summarized for reference in Appendix A, using a modified (and more readable) form of BNF recommended by Ledgard.

The last two chapters are devoted to describing the specific quirks, advantages, and nonstandard features of the two compilers. Appendix B summarizes the use of the ASCII code with the IBM Monochrome Display and the IBM printer. Appendix C summarizes standard input/output; Appendix D, standard procedures; and Appendix E, the IBM system of character widths.

This book is based, in large part, on *Pascal Programming Structures* by George Cherry (Reston, 1981). It is to George Cherry that the book owes its depth and its pedagogical virtues; any defects in the present version are entirely my own. I am grateful to Cherry for laying such a solid foundation for the work, and to Reston Publishing Company for giving me the opportunity to officiate at this wedding of an outstanding text with a computer of equal quality.

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# Contents

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Preface ix

**CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION TO PROGRAMMING 1**

Objects and Actions 1  
Data 1  
Instructing a Computer 2  
A Preview of Pascal 4  
The Need for Care and Precision 8  
The Form of a Program 9  
Exercises 14

**CHAPTER 2 THE STRUCTURE OF PASCAL PROGRAMS 17**

First Example 17  
Second Example 22  
Third Example 24  
The Pattern of a Pascal Program 27  
The Layout and Typestyle of Pascal Programs 30  
Exercises 31

**CHAPTER 3 USING YOUR COMPILER 33**

The Compilation Process 33  
Diskette Organization 38  
Using IBM Pascal 40  
Using Pascal MT+86 47  
Exercises 53

**CHAPTER 4 OPERATIONS ON SIMPLE VARIABLES 55**

How Variables are Realized 55  
Declaring Variables 55  
Boolean: The Data Type of True and False 59  
Char: The Data Type of Printable Characters 65  
Scalar Types Defined by the Programmer 72  
Integer: The Type of Whole Numbers 76  
The Subrange Data Type 81  
Real: The Type of Decimal Numbers 82  
Exercises 87

**CHAPTER 5 INTRODUCTION TO INPUT AND OUTPUT 91**

Input/Output Methods 91  
Character I/O 93  
The Standard Input and Output Files 96  
Numerical Input: The read Procedure 97  
Input of Numeric Data: The readln Procedure 102  
Input of Character Data 104  
Input of Mixed Numeric and Character Data 106  
Output of Data: write and writeln 108  
Exercises 112

**CHAPTER 6 ORGANIZING PROGRAM ACTIONS 115**

Categories of Structure 115  
Concatenating Program Actions: begin and end 116  
Repetition Controlled by a Count: for 117  
Repetition Controlled by a Pre-condition: while 122  
Repetition Controlled by a Post-condition:  
repeat . . . until 125  
Choosing Between Two Alternatives: if 127  
Selecting From Many Alternatives: else . . . if 130  
Selecting One From Many: case . . . end 131  
The Unstructured Branch: goto 134  
Exercises 137

**CHAPTER 7 DATA STRUCTURES: THE ARRAY 141**

A First Look at Arrays 141  
Defining Array Types 146

---

---

Searching an Array 149  
Sorting Arrays 155  
Multidimensional Arrays 156  
Standard Strings: Arrays of Characters 160  
Applying Strings: Text Editing and Formatting 165  
Exercises 171

**CHAPTER 8      FUNCTIONS 175**

The Use of Functions 176  
Designing with Functions 178  
The Scope of Names 183  
Recursive Functions 185  
Boolean Functions 188  
Extending Pascal with New Subprograms 190  
Exercises 193

**CHAPTER 9      PROCEDURES 195**

The Form of a Procedure 195  
A Real Example of Hierarchical Structure 199  
Value Parameters and Variable Parameters 202  
Using Parameters 205  
Procedural and Functional Parameters 207  
Recursive Procedures 209  
Subprogram Directives 214  
Block Structure and the Scope of Identifiers 216  
Tips on Writing Subprograms 220  
Exercises 221

**CHAPTER 10     DATA STRUCTURES: THE RECORD 225**

The Form of a Record 225  
Designing with Records 229  
The with Statement 232  
Variant Records 235  
A Program to Create a Line Index 241  
Omitting the Tag Field 250  
Exercises 253



**CHAPTER 11 DYNAMICALLY ALLOCATED DATA 255**

- The Need for Dynamic Structures 255
- The Dynamic Data Facility 256
- Linked Lists 261
- The Stack: As an Array 265
- The Stack: As a Linked List 267
- The Queue Structure 272
- The Binary Search Tree 278
- The Use of Dynamic Storage 290
- Exercises 293

**CHAPTER 12 DATA STRUCTURES: THE FILE 297**

- The Sequence 297
- Pascal Files 299
- Creating a File 301
- Reading a File 303
- Copying and Modifying Files 305
- Merging and Sorting Files 310
- Exercises 319

**CHAPTER 13 DATA STRUCTURES: THE SET 323**

- Sets in Pascal 324
- Using Sets 326
- An Example: Lexical Analysis 328
- Set Arithmetic 330
- Set Subprograms 331
- Limitations of the Set Type 333
- Exercises 333

**CHAPTER 14 THE IBM PASCAL COMPILER 335**

- Syntax and Semantics 335
- Declaration of Data 339
- Input and Output 343
- Modular Programs 346

---

<b>CHAPTER 15</b>	<b>THE PASCAL/MT + 86 COMPILER</b>	<b>359</b>
	Syntax and Semantics	359
	Declaration of Data	361
	Input and Output	364
	Modular Programs	366
<b>APPENDIX A</b>	<b>FORMAL DESCRIPTION OF PASCAL</b>	<b>375</b>
	The Need for a Definition	375
	The Notation of Definitions	375
	Scope of the Definition	378
	The Language Definition	379
<b>APPENDIX B</b>	<b>CHARACTER DATA VALUES</b>	<b>387</b>
	Standard Character Data	387
	The ASCII Character Set	387
	The IBM Display	391
	The IBM Printer	396
<b>APPENDIX C</b>	<b>SUMMARY OF STANDARD INPUT/OUTPUT</b>	<b>403</b>
	Definitions	403
	General Output	404
	General Input	404
	Textfiles	405
	Textfile Output	406
	Textfile Input	407
	Textfile Programming	408
<b>APPENDIX D</b>	<b>SUMMARY OF STANDARD PROCEDURES</b>	<b>411</b>
	Standard Procedures	411
	Standard Functions	412

**APPENDIX E IBM 9-UNIT SYSTEM OF CHARACTER WIDTHS 415**

**Index 417**

**Index of Pascal Terms 419**

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# 1 Introduction to Programming

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## OBJECTS AND ACTIONS

A computer program is a sequence of instructions to a computer processor, telling it to perform useful *actions* on significant *objects*. Early in the history of computers the objects were almost always numbers, and the actions on them were almost always the operations of arithmetic. This is no longer the case. For example, there are computer programs that help us to create, edit, and typeset English text. In such programs the objects are letters, punctuation marks, words, and paragraphs; the useful actions include insertion, deletion, pagination, and printing.

The significant objects can also be lines, curves, and other elements of figures; examples of the useful actions on such objects include position, rotate, change color, move, erase, and print. Objects and actions like these are used in computer graphics and in programs for computer-aided drafting and design.

Another example of significant objects is that of records that are arranged in lists—an insurance company's list of records of its policyholders, for instance. The useful actions here are manipulations on the data in the records—to print the names of all policyholders who had more than three claims in the last five years; to print reminder notices to all policyholders whose premiums are thirty days overdue; or to send information about automobile insurance to all the policyholders who have life insurance and no automobile insurance.

## DATA

We call the significant objects on which a program is to work, *data*. The first ingredient of a well-written program is a thorough and careful

description of the types of data on which the program is to act. One important advantage of the Pascal programming language is that it lets us describe the *objects* of a program as clearly as the *actions* to be done on them.

### Constants

There are two kinds of data in a computer program. Data whose values cannot change during the execution of the program are called *constants*. For example, the number of ounces in a quart, 32, would be a constant in any reasonable program.

### Variables

Data whose values can change are called *variables*. Variables are the focus of most of a program's actions. At the insurance company, a program might well contain a variable named `PolicyHolder`. The value of `PolicyHolder` will probably not be constant. Rather, it will contain information about the one particular policyholder the program is acting on at any particular moment. When the program moves on to consider a different policyholder, it will arrange for information about that different person to be associated with the name `PolicyHolder`.

### The Type of Data

Every variable in a Pascal program has a distinct and unchanging data *type* associated with it. A data type is a statement of what *kind* of data a variable may contain. It determines what values the variable can reasonably hold, what operations may validly be performed on the data, and the form and arrangement of the data in computer storage. Definitions of data types are a prominent feature of most Pascal programs. They give the program's author a tool for controlling the program's shape, and they give the program's reader a firm grasp on the author's intent.

## INSTRUCTING A COMPUTER

Since computers don't "think" the way we do (or at all), there is always some compromise when we human beings try to communicate with a computer. We would like to instruct the computer the way we would talk to a human assistant, saying things like "Keep a record of the hours, overtime, and bonuses of each employee and print out their paychecks each month," or "Keep an inventory of all the new automobiles we have in stock and tell me right now how many air-conditioned, manual transmission, two-door hatchbacks we have," or "Keep a record of the sales by all salespeople and print out their names and sales-to-date in descending order." Unfortunately, we can't do that.

## The Communication Gap

Despite the movies in which actors carry on colloquial dialogues with their computers, you probably know that there's a vast gulf between what we would like to say to the computer and what the computer can understand. The computer, after all, works only with strings of binary digits (or "bits") like 11010001, 00100101, 11100111, and so on. It has no means of working with the consequential objects like `PolicyHolder` or `PageNumber` that we use. The computer's native actions are primitive and elementary, unrelated in any way we can readily see to the problem-solving actions that we want done. If we didn't already know that computers are useful, we might despair that they ever could be.

## Programming Languages

We bridge this formidable gap with a *programming language*. A computer programming language is a notation for describing the objects we want to work with, and the actions that we want the computer processor to perform on them. A programming language is a simple, rigidly defined, formal notation that is easy to translate into the machine's language of binary numbers. Nevertheless, a good programming language makes it easy for us to express our problem solutions; its notational forms are well suited to the description of the kinds of objects and actions that we want the computer to deal with.

In order to instruct a computer, we write a program in a programming language, and store that program as a file in the machine's file medium—on a diskette, in the IBM Personal Computer. Then we run a computer program called a *compiler*, which performs the translation of our program into the computer's internal language. The translated program—a sequence of binary numbers—is also stored in a file, and it can then be loaded into the machine and executed. We use the computer to translate a language that we can use into one that it can use. Thus does the computer help solve the communication problem which it created!

The process of translating from a programming language into a machine language is called *compiling* a program. It is a complex process, even though programming languages are more simple and limited than natural languages like English. A good compiler for the Pascal programming language will do more than translate your program for you. It will also check your program's adherence to Pascal's rules for data typing and syntax, and make whatever checks it can of the program's logical consistency. A good compiler is the programmer's best friend. The Pascal compilers available for the IBM Personal Computer are both of good quality.

## A PREVIEW OF PASCAL

Computers and programs may seem to be at the outer edge of high technology, but the ideas behind them are common and homely. The recipe for a cake, the instructions for knitting a sweater, or the directions for building a birdhouse all have a similar logical format. Consider the following recipe:

BAKED ZITI (serves 4)

**Ingredients:**

- 1 (8-ounce) package ziti
- 2 cups Italian tomato sauce
- 1 cup shredded mozzarella cheese

**Actions:**

1. Cook ziti according to spaghetti recipe on page 343.
2. Prepare Italian tomato sauce according to recipe on page 186.
3. Combine ziti, tomato sauce, and 1/2 cup shredded cheese in 2-quart casserole.
4. Sprinkle remainder of cheese on top of casserole.
5. Heat casserole uncovered on full power for ten minutes or until cheese is melted and sauce is bubbly.

The structure of this recipe has many parallels with a computer program. Like the recipe, a Pascal program starts with a heading. Like the recipe, a Pascal program will follow the heading with a list of its "ingredients," definitions of the objects on which it will operate.

Notice that the recipe refers to subrecipes on other pages of the cookbook: the procedures for cooking the ziti and preparing the Italian tomato sauce. The single instruction in action 2 in the main recipe stands for many definitions and actions defined in the Italian tomato sauce procedure on page 186. Many cookbooks define a set of useful procedures, functions, and subrecipes which the author invokes again and again. Procedures for stuffing and trussing a bird might appear at the beginning of the poultry section. Later in the cookbook, recipes for wild duck, turkey, and partridge can invoke these predefined procedures. The author will give gravy and sauce subrecipes and then invoke them in main recipes with shorthand phrases like "White Sauce III, page 285." Pascal offers two forms of subprogram (the *procedure* and the *function*) which are analogous to these subrecipes. They serve the same purpose: they make the main program more compact and more comprehensible.

A particularly useful kind of instruction in a recipe is one that makes the actions of the cook contingent on the condition of the item under preparation. In the ziti recipe, action 5 contains such an instruction: the cook is to heat the casserole "until cheese is melted and sauce is bubbly."

Other examples from a popular cookbook are: "simmer celery until tender"; "beat the batter until it is smooth"; "whip the egg whites until they stand in peaks." Pascal has two kinds of instructions for controlling repetitive actions. Borrowing the Pascal keywords, they are:

```
while "the batter is lumpy" do
    "beat the batter."
```

and

```
repeat
    "simmer the celery"
until "the celery is tender."
```

### Assignment of Values

The above is pidgin Pascal. Here's some real Pascal:

```
repeat
    X := X / 2
until X < 1
```

As you read that, remember that every trade and profession has special jargon and symbols. Computing (and cookery!) is no exception. The special symbol `:=` in the above statement is called the *assignment* operator. The assignment operator instructs the computer in a two-stage process:

- Evaluate the expression on the right-hand side; that is, find the value of X divided by 2.
- Assign this value to the variable whose name appears on the left-hand side.

How do you pronounce `X := X / 2`? Programmers usually just say "X equals X over two." Of course, that sentence doesn't make mathematical sense; unless X is zero it cannot possibly be "equal" to itself divided by 2. Another way to pronounce an assignment statement is to say "X gets X over 2." This emphasizes the real meaning of the Pascal statement: the value of X/2 is to be computed, and that value is to be stored in the variable named X. Pascal will always try to remind you that the assignment operator is not the same as "=" or "equals"; that's precisely why it uses `:=` for the assignment operator. If you want to be strictly correct (and sound rather pedantic!), you might say "replace the old value of X with the old value of X divided by two."



## Repeated Actions

Recall the whole statement we are talking about:

```
repeat
    X := X / 2
until X < 1
```

What does that **repeat-until** statement tell the computer to do? It says to repeatedly halve the value contained in the variable X until the value is less than one. If the initial value in X is 10, then the sequence of values assigned to X is: 5.0, 2.5, 1.25, 0.625. The final value assigned to X by this process is 0.625. With that assignment, X's value becomes less than 1, the condition of the repetition is satisfied, and the statement is complete. The computer will cease the repetition, just as the cook will stop heating the ziti when the cheese begins to bubble.

A simpler kind of repetition in a recipe is noncontingent: the action is repeated for a fixed number of times or for a given duration. Cookbook examples include "stir mixture ten times," "blend for six minutes," "rinse in clear, cold water three times." Pascal has a control structure analogous to this. Here's some pidgin Pascal translating two of the above instructions.

```
for J := 1 to 10 do
    "stir the mixture";
for J := 1 to 3 do
    "rinse in cold, clear water";
```

The words in bold letters are reserved words of the Pascal language, which are always spelled and used in the same way. Here's some real Pascal.

```
for J := 1 to 4 do
    writeln('This is a test.');
```

This Pascal instruction writes the lines

```
This is a test.
This is a test.
This is a test.
This is a test.
```

on the display screen.

## Conditional Actions

In both recipes and programs, there are times when an action should be done or not done, depending on some condition. From a recipe book we have "pare apples only if the skins are tough" and "if the caramel is